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ABSTRACT

This study uses a model to analyze long-range educational planning for the achievement of educational purposes, goals, and objectives. The study was intended to examine planning from a broad perspective that includes the objectives, administration, and economics of education. Much of the analysis applies to public as well as to private institutions and to colleges and universities as well as to elementary and secondary schools; however, special emphasis is given to private institutions of higher education. (Author)

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Rudolf E. KLIMES

1. Introduction

For many years educators believed that when students are placed in the learning environment of an educational institution they learn. And we have associated learning with improvement and betterment, forgetting that thieves also improve by practice—and thus become better thieves.

Thus the quest in education should not only be for effective or efficient education, but education for a specific thought-after effect. It is time to re-evaluate the purpose of education and steer the ship of learning according to a map. Ships do not reach a thought-after harbor by drifting with every wind. But before educators set out from harbor they had better look over their harbor (examine the situation), map their course (plan and program), look over their ship and crew (study the resources), parcel out the jobs (allocate the resources), regulate and steer the boat (control the resources), and when they land make sure they are in the right harbor (analyze the results).

2. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to analyze long-range educational planning for the achievement of the educational purpose, goals and objectives with the help of a model. The study is intended to examine planning in education from a broad perspective of the objectives of education, educational administration, and economics of education. Excluded from the scope of the study is a discussion of detail policies. Much of the analysis presented applies to public as well as to private institutions, and to colleges and universities as well as to elementary and secondary schools, but special emphasis has been given to private institutions of higher learning.

No effort has been made to make this study a comprehensive one; rather it is perhaps best viewed as an attempt to structure, overview, and outline those aspects of education, economics and finance of education which concern long-term educational planning.

Human and material resources were considered not only for what they are, but for what they could become, for their potential. The resources of education interact in the process of education to produce, among other results, graduates that meet the stated objectives of the institution.

No attempt has been made to present the Planning, Programming, Budgeting System (PPBS) as such but the present paper follows many concepts of the system.[1]

The PPBS, in the final analysis, emphasizes budgeting; long-range educational planning emphasizes the achievement of the purpose, goals and objectives of an institution.

3. Educational Planning

Planning may be defined as a system of anticipatory decision-making in an interdependent, dynamic environment. Planning concerns itself with the future and with decisions that will affect the working operation of the institution. Planners considered not only the area of concern but also the effect that a change in one area will have on one or many other areas. Further, conditions change constantly so that rules developed for one month may not apply another month.

In the absence of a sound long-range planning process, it is easily understandable why many administrators prefer to take care of short-term crises by what may be called "administration by exasperation" and steer by what they consider their good common sense.

Planning is meaningful only in the light of the institutional purpose, goals, and objectives. It connects a set of hoped-for goals and objectives to a set of realized objectives. It assists in pointing out where the institution is, where it wants to go, and how to get there. If the direction matters little, planning is considered too time-consuming to be of value.

Educational planning in higher education traditionally has been an area closely related to the development of physical facilities and to fund-raising. Instituional development personnel needed varied and persuasive literature to coax a reluctant public to invest its resources in a particular institution. Planning, as seen in this study goes deeper and has a different purpose. There is no need here to glamorize or enlarge an institution. The emphasis is on facilitating the reaching of the stated purpose, goals and objectives.

Educational planning, as a complex system, has few guidelines and laws. Generalizations are difficult. Yet Ewing has developed seven interesting laws for planning:

"Law I: A viable program meets the needs of
- (a) The formal organization
- (b) Individuals
- (c) and Groups.

Corollary IA: The perfect plan is not perfect from an organizational, individual or group standpoint.

Corollary IB: The three needs should be borne in mind during the concep-

1 H. J. Hartley, *Educational Planning-Programming-Budgeting* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968), pp. 75-99.

tion and design of a program as well as during its execution.

Law II: Effective planning is incomplete planning.

Corollary IIA: The optimum amount of detail is roughly proportional to the organization's experience in planning.

Corollary IIB: The less able and trustworthy a planning leader's subordinates, the less he can plan in any way.

Law III: Every well-drawn plant is out of date by the time it is in use.

Corollary IIIA: The only plan that conceivably can be 100% up-to-date is one that was drawn in error.

Law IV: Planning creates anti-planning.

Law V: The planning leader who is effective for a sustained period has political power.

Law VI: Good planning does not always succeed.

Corollary VIA: Poor planning does not always fail.

Law VII: The act of planning itself changes the situation in which the organization operates."[2]

4. A Model for Long-Range Educational Planning

Long-range planning is an on-going decision-making process in light of the educational purpose, goals, objectives and future conditions. It is further the facilitating of the process of education and organized permeating feedback on the basis of accurate evaluation.

Long-range planning in education recognizes education as a long-living, continuing, purposeful agent of change. Further, it is based on research and the confidence in some degree of political and social stability.

Long-range planning can also be understood by examining some negatives. Drucker suggested some of them:

"1. It is not 'forecasting.' Forecasting attempts to find the most probable course of events, or at best, a range of probabilities.

2. Long-range planning does not deal with future decisions. It deals with the futurity of present decisions.

3. Finally, the most common misconception of all, long-range planning is not an attempt to eliminate risk. It is not even an attempt to minimize risk."[3]

A model for long-range planning is presented in figure 1. The figure presents an attempt to systematize and bring the whole area into a graphic focus. The design of a model for computer simulation is beyond the scope of this study. The four inputs, especially the area of educational purpose, goals and objectives are discussed in another part of the study; while considering the process, special consideration

2 D. Ewing, *The Human Side of Planning* (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1969), p. 187.

3 D. F. Drucker, "Long-Range Planning Means Risk-Taking," in David W. Ewing, ed., *Long-Range Planning for Management* (New York: Harper and Row, 1958), pp. 7-9.

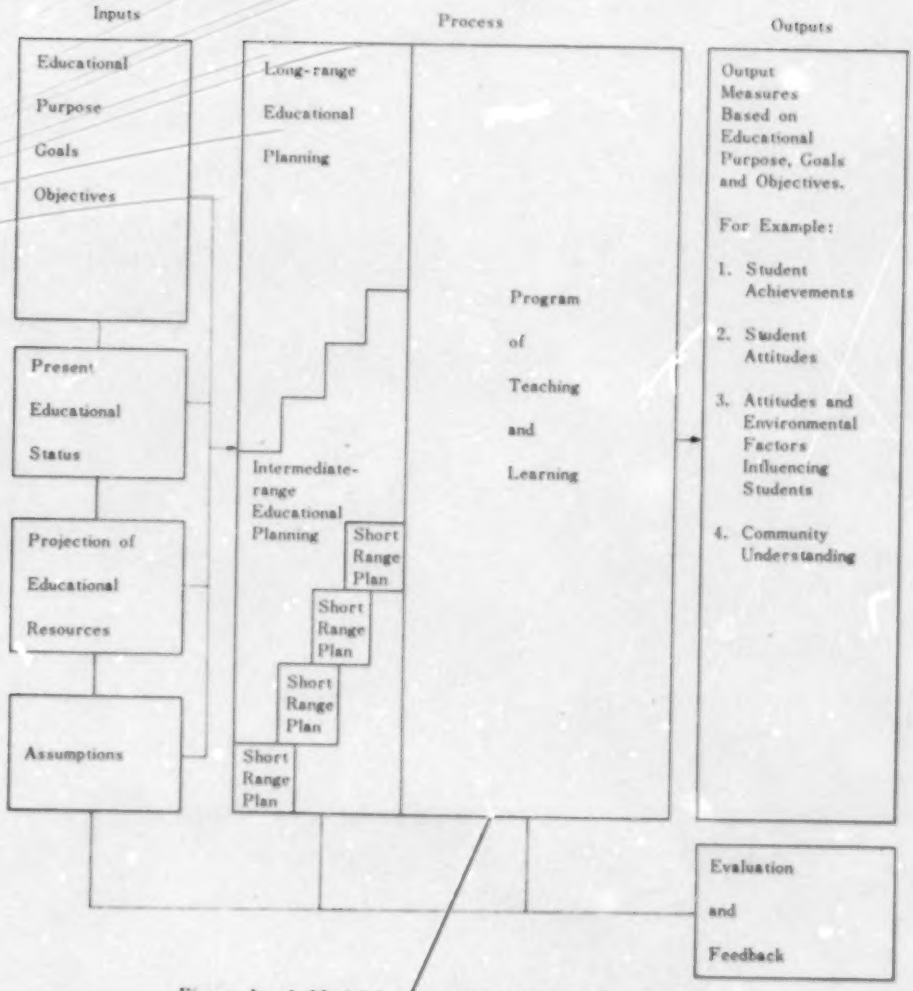

Figure 1. A Model for Long-Range Education Planning.

is given to the planning process. Some may argue that planning should be an input since it is so closely related to the educational purpose, goals and objectives. The present author considers planning an integral part of the educational process. The outcome measures must be designed specifically to reflect the educational purpose, goals and objectives of the institution. Evaluation and feedback concern inputs, processes, and outputs.

The purpose, the goals and objectives must govern the direction the institution

takes; these will be expressed in the desired results. Were the projections mainly to lead the educational institution, then the process should be called projecting or forecasting, but not long-range planning.

One value of a long-range plan lies in its emphasis in determining the present accurate condition of the institution. It incorporates all aspects of the educational survey and status study and goes from there to help facilitate a better achievement of the educational purpose.

Long-range planning concerns itself with all educational resources including the organizational structure for the use of the educational resources.

In most countries the expanding resources for education have not kept pace with the expanding demand for education. This has especially been true in private education. In times when resources are plentiful, the function of educational long-range planning is mainly to keep the institution on course; during times of very scarce resources, it has an added function of preserving or purposefully discontinuing the educational institution or system items.

Further, the assumptions and major ground rules of the long-range plan must be clearly stated in order to facilitate the development of intermediate-range plans that will take into consideration changes in the assumptions and basic ground rules. The assumptions may be general and specific and be related to social, political, economical, technological, educational and other factors.

The major step in the development of a long-range plan is the examination of desired results in the light of the present status report, researched assumptions and intelligent projections of present trends. Where these factors are close together, long-range planning will be relatively easy. Where they are far apart, the desired educational result rather than the projection should become the mainstay of the long-range plan.

Planning presupposes a choice between alternatives. Without choice, only one course of action would be possible. It is the process of working toward desired goals and objectives and minimizing the occurrence of undesired future results.

In the daily press of activities, administrators find little time to step back and view their institution or system in a broad educational perspective. Long-range planning provides an opportunity for this. Among other things, it highlights future problems and gives lead time for value judgments of present operations in the light of a stated purpose, it opens windows for imaginative profitable exploration, it helps in preventing piecemeal detrimental solutions, and it leads and stimulates in the achievement of the set purpose, goals and objectives of the institution.

The terms long-range plan and master plan are usually synonymous, but the term master plan has been more extensively used in connection with industry and physical facilities.

Some long-range plans may be pretested by use of mathematical and other models, laboratories, and data processing.

Long-range education planning will also make use, where need occurs, of planning

calendars, flow-charts, input-output analysis, benefit-cost analysis, cost-effectiveness evaluation, management information systems, gaming accountability and simple descriptive summaries.

Long-range planning in education cannot be the task of a few selected administrators. It should involve the participation of all the publics concerned with the institution, from the lowest operational level to the highest board level.

5. Dimensions of Long-Range Educational Planning

The dimensions of long-range educational planning considered in this study are time range, orientation, function, control and scope. Figure 2 shows the inter-rela-

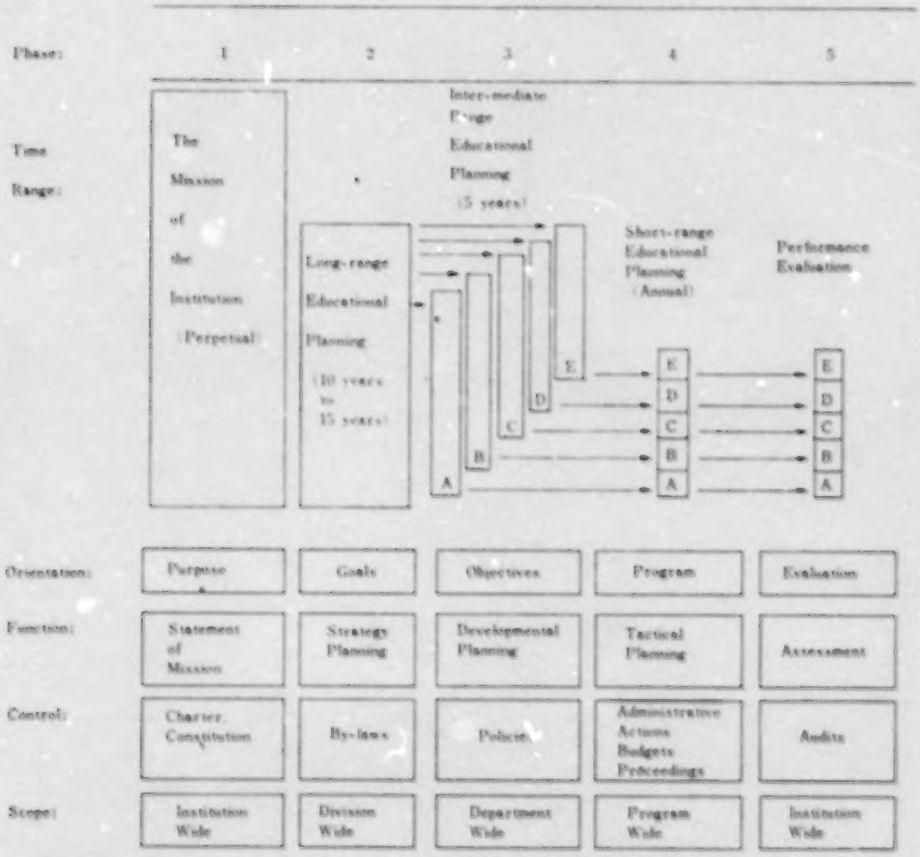

Figure 2. Dimensions of Long-Range Educational Planning

tionship between the various dimensions of planning. A number of observations can be drawn from Figure 2.

First, the categories are not an exhaustive list, they are not mutually exclusive, nor are there always clear demarcation lines between the various categories. Like most graphic presentations, this chart is a simplification of complex relationships.

Second, a system of planning could be developed around each category of the first four phases.

Third, the planning technique and methodology for one planning dimension might be unsuitable for another planning dimension.

Fourth, accurate definitions, care with semantics and standardized units are necessary to make planning possible.

Time Range: The mission of an institution is usually perpetual. Long-range planning concerns itself usually with a time period of ten to fifteen years but in some cases the longest planning period advisable is five to seven years. Intermediate range planning involves often a five-year period, but here also there may be a range from about three years to eight years. Short-range plans are usually annual plans, but in some cases two-year plans or even three-month plans may be desirable. All planning and performance evaluation is a continuous process. The emphasis is not on a published plan, but on the achieving of desired results through planning.

Orientation Hierarchy: The purpose of an educational institution or system is the guiding precept or mission toward which all activities ultimately are directed. The goals are its long-range specific aspirations. The objectives are the intermediate range attainment levels directed toward the achievement of the goals. The priorities are the ranking of institutional objectives in order of importance. The programs are interrelated activities designed to achieve specific institutional objectives within a stipulated period of time. The budget is a plan for allocating resources to specific programs. The evaluation measures the degree to which the stated purpose, goals, objectives, and programs have been achieved.

Function Hierarchy: The statement of the mission of an institution is the basis for all further planning. Strategic planning is best characterized by its emphasis on long-rangedness, institution-wide scope and concern with ends-orientation. Developmental planning concerns itself with the implementation of the strategic plan on a development-period by development-period basis. Tactical planning is usually characterized by short-rangedness, program-wide concern, and product orientation. Assessment is the evaluation of the program results in light of the planning process.

Control Hierarchy: The charter and constitution provide the basic framework and purpose of an institution or system. The charter and constitution are rarely, if ever changed. By-laws provide more easily changeable laws which govern the operation of the institution. Policies are authorized guides to action that standarize activities and decisions. As goals and objectives change, by-laws and policies must be re-examined to ascertain their continuing relevancy. Administrative actions, budgets and procedures control the month-by-month implementation of the program. The

audit evaluates if the intent of the various controls has been followed and may be, among other evaluators, in the area of finance, management, and administration.

Scope: The mission of the institution and performance evaluation are institution-wide in scope. In order to bring each planning phase as close to the working level as possible, long-range plans are usually developed division-wide and then co-ordinated; intermediate range plans are usually originated on the departmental level; and short-range program plans on a program-wide scale.

6. Purpose of Education

Generally the purpose of an educational institution remains unchanged. Usually the statement of purpose is written in quite general terms so that it can be accommodated by various goals and objectives.

Only the stability of the institutional purpose makes long-range planning possible. For a change in purpose would result in needed changes in goals, objectives and programs. One of the basic usefulnesses of the institutional purpose is its stability. In an everchanging society there must be some absolutes toward which the educational institution can be steered. The institutional purpose is an outgrowth of the philosophy of the educational institution. It must have its basis in real needs, in a definite value system, in a way of life and education.

The more general the institutional purpose, the more varied will be its interpretation and thus permit change in the educational institution. The desired degree of possible change in an educational institution can, to some degree, be affected by the scope of the institutional purpose.

Generally, the purpose of the institution would be restudied quite rarely, about every five or ten years.

7. Goals of Education

The study of goals, objectives and programs follows an annual cycle.

The goals of an educational institution should be reviewed annually. The goals give meaning to the long-range plan. They are the basis on which the long-range plan is built. Changes in society, education or the institution would bring about changes in goals. Yet generally, goals are high marks on the distant horizon and changes in them will occur only about every three to four years. In a way, the goals are a more exact statement of the institutional purpose and as such would show some of the stability of the institutional purpose.

Goals and objectives must be so written that they may serve as a basis for operational outcome measures.

8. Objectives of Education

The institutional objectives, in order of priorities, form the basis for the intermediate range plan. These objectives and plans need annual review and adjustment. Most planning should take place on this level, for this level is the vital link of the institutional purpose and goals to the actual annual program.[4] This level permits the broader institutional perspective of purpose and time and yet relates to the annual program. Accurate information as to the degree of achievement of each annual plan is needed to help keep the objectives relevant and the intermediate range plan up-to-date. Without sufficient accurate data, the achievement of the objectives cannot be measured. In such a case data are important as a bridge between the institutional philosophy and the realistic actual state of the institution.

Educational planning does not always involve the growth of an institution. Bintzer, in *The College and University Journal*, writes; "our self-scrutiny has resulted, in the last 5 years, in our dropping one department and two schools. It takes a peculiar kind of courage to make 'orphans' out of a lot of alumni.

One thing we concluded early. We can't be all things to all men. We know our strengths and our weaknesses. We're ready and willing to capitalize our strengths and shore up our weaknesses."[5] The *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* suggests three types of educational objectives: cognitive, affective, and manipulative.

A. Cognitive objectives deal with recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities and skills. The taxonomy dealt exclusively with cognitive objectives and divided them further into knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation.

B. Affective objectives deal with changes in interest, attitudes, values, and the development of appreciations and adjustments.

C. Manipulative objectives deal with motor skills.[6]

9. Priorities of Educational Objectives

Philosophically, educators could desire equal emphasis on a series of stated objectives. But the spirit of competition, human strength and weakness, resource limitations, politics, social conditions and other factors make perfect equality of objectives impossible. Some objectives, without any specific direction or effort, are apt to push themselves to the top in the process of education. Others are apt to starve in a corner. Priority planning concerns itself with which educational objectives should be most important and which of secondary importance. The consideration of priorities

4 R. J. Kibler, L. L. Barker, and D. T. Miles, *Behavioral Objectives and Instruction* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1970), pp. 102-110.

5 H. Russes Bintzer, "Planning" *The College and University Journal*, II (Summer 1963), 1.

6 *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook 1: Cognitive Domain* (New York: Longman, Green and Company, 1956), p. 3.

takes the emphasis control away from the actual working level and places it in a broader perspective of purpose, goals and time.

The setting of objectives reveals conflicting objectives. The more limited the resources, the sharper the conflict in the allocation of priorities. Where resources are less limited, the problem of priority allocation seems smaller. No situation of limitless resources exits, at least not among living men. Even where there is a seemingly unlimited wealth of physical resources, as there can be at very few centers of learning, there is still the limitation of time and technology. The priorities of alternatives concern themselves not only with the development of goals and objectives, but also with the other steps in planning, programming and budgeting.

Alternatives must be listed by priorities according to some selected criterion. The analysis, as an illustration, will be according to the effectiveness and cost criteria. A clear relationship between the two criteria must be established. Then, after each alternative has been analyzed in the light of the chosen criteria, it will be arranged according to priority, that is the order in which they best meet the chosen criteria.

In the selection of priorities, the most difficult questions center not at the extremes of the spectrum which could be termed +3 very effective, or −3 very harmful, but near the center which could be termed +1 possibly effective, and −1 possibly harmful.

The selection of effective programs, other factors being equal, will be good economy; the selection of harmful programs bad economy.

10. The Program of Education

The program of an educational institution is expressed in the institution's annual plan. It is an outgrowth and segment of the intermediate range plan and builds on the evaluation of the achievement of the previous annual plan. Most often it consists only of a financial budget, an estimate of money income and expense. In order to function as an effective program plan, it must consider the allocation of all resources for each program.[7]

The program is the function in which all the directional hierarchy and the working levels are to integrate.

Planning on the program level cannot be fixed, rigid or dogmatic but must show a degree of flexibility. In a rapidly changing environment, temporary plans may be substituted for those developed for the annual period.

The objectives are to control the program, to a certain extent, through the budget. On this level, planning is the process that relates the objectives to the budget—and through the budget to the program. But since traditionally the budget is merely

7 Sidney G. Tickton, "The Long-Term Budget Projection: A New Management Tool for Colleges and Universities." in *Financing Higher Education, 1960-1970* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc., 1957), pp. 138-161.

a financial numerical document, educational policies must supplement the financial outline plan.

In programing, emphasis must be placed on the budget, on the facilitating of the stated programs. The basis for this year's budget is not to be last year's budget, but this year's program. This concept is called program budgeting and is a part of the PPBS system.

The budget, at its best, is the financial and educational resource expression of the institution's purpose, goals and objectives. The cutting edge of any plan is the budget. If on the other hand, after careful and time consuming long-range and short-range educational planning, a budget having no relationship to the planning is drawn up and approved, planning fails to connect with economic reality. The plan, and not habit, must lead the budget.

11. Output Measures

Output measures may be defined as size indicators and program evaluation criteria that are based on the institutional purpose, goals and objectives and are used to evaluate the performance level of the program of the institution.[8] They may be divided into three types, namely effectiveness indicators, monetary criteria and size indicators. Effectiveness indicators, if they can be developed, are the most desirable ones and size indicators, often readily available, the least meaningful ones.

In developing output measures, the following factors may be considered:

1. Objective-oriented output measures depend upon the objectives.
2. End-oriented output measures reflect what is to be accomplished, for whom (target population), not ways to accomplish objectives (means-oriented).
3. Absence of prescribed specific numerical magnitudes.
4. Relevancy to the specific problem.
5. Covering all major effects.
6. Capability of meaningful quantification.
7. Composite output measures: Few programs can be measured with a single output measure. The composite output measure can be pooled into a single output measure index by applying the relative weight to each part.
8. Definitions of output measures, as per person per year, etc.

12. Evaluation

Evaluation is the comparing of present results with the purpose and goals of the institution. It is based on objective evidence, on experience, on subjective judgment or on a combination of the above. The objectives must be so written that objective and subjective standards of acceptable performance in the various areas may be easily

8 David A. Payne, *The Specification and Measurement of Learning Outcomes* (Waltham, Massachusetts: Blaisdell Publishing House Company, 1968), pp. 11-25.

Table 1. An Overview of the Resources of Education

Category	Resources	Selected Indicators	Sources	Selectives Levels
Human (Manpower)	Students Time and Effort	Time and Effort in the Classroom; Time and Effort at Home; Extracurricula	Graduates or Other Schools	Admission Standards
	Faculty/Administration Time and Effort	In Classroom Preparation Research/Service	Graduate of Universities	Employment and Academic Promotion (Certification Standards)
	Staff Time and Effort	At School	Graduates of Other Schools	Employment Standards
	Constituency Time and Effort and Parents, Alumni, Public	General Constituency Board	Graduates of Schools	Membership in Society and Election of Representatives
Material	Material, Supplies	Total per Student	Funds	Administrators
	Land and Buildings	Ground (space) sq. ft. per Student Bldg. sq. ft/Student Libr. books/Student	Funds	Administrators
	Funds	Appropriations	Constituency Government	Formula
		Tuition	Students	Students, Administrators
		Alumni and Other Gifts	Graduates and Friends	Graduates and Friends

developed from them.

Evaluation concerns itself mainly with program effectiveness, because program effectiveness is the concrete test of the degree of achievement of the institution's purpose, goals and objectives.

13. An Overview of the Resources of Education

An overview of the resources available to education is presented in Table 1. Human tegories, include students, faculty, administrators, staff, and constituency. Time and effort include also the more intangible resources that facilitate the process of education, as, for example, the ideas, innovations, and religious convictions that these human resources contribute. Thus the effort is viewed in broad scope.

A possible sub-category, work technique, cannot be exactly quantitated by present methods and thus constitutes the least defined variable in the whole spectrum. Nevertheless, the day may come that administrators can measure more exactly the relative effectiveness of various work techniques. Even the crude measures that are available can be an indication to the input level.

Material resources include materials, supplies, land, buildings, and funds not only of the specific educational institution, or system, but also of cooperative institutions. A few selected indicators are given for each category to suggest mean of analyzing inputs. The sources of the resources vary from institution to institution, but a few generalities hold true for most institutions. All resources are somewhat selected and selective levels could be established. Resources represent investments and thus special groups show concern for the proper use of each selected resource. The resources themselves can be measured in time, efforts, and often money.

Primary and Secondary Resources: Primary resources are available for the process of education independent from other resources; for example, most human resources, appropriations and gifts. Secondary resources depend on the availability or capacity of the primary resources. For example, the total amount of tuition increase depends on the number and economic level of the student body. Also, some resources are secondary resources because they were originally purchased with appropriations or received as gifts and at present perform a secondary or support function. Examples of this type would be campus buildings or student aid. On the other hand, in most institutions, the interdependence of all resources is very great and too detailed a catagorization can become a question of the chicken and the egg. The assignment of resources as primary or secondary often affects their assignment in the input or output column.

14. The Process of Resource Allocation

Resource allocation follows the planning, programming, budgeting cycle. The planning process itself could be broken down to five sub-processes, namely the establishment of purpose, goals, objectives, output measures, and priorities. Then following programming and budgeting the cycle includes evaluation. The analysis of the present and past allocation of resources in education will in turn influence planning for the next time period.

Planning involves the largest view, locating education in the sea of human

activities and chartering a chosen course. Programming looks for ways to travel the charted course, a chartable distance at a time. Alternative courses are also analyzed. The budgeting process attempts to allocate the available resources to facilitate the selected programs. Evaluation examines how closely the plans were followed All categories have different time cycles, but there is a need for long-range plans, programs, and budgets just as there is one for annual plans, programs, budgets, and evaluations and their re-evaluations.

There is one basic problem in the resource allocation in education : resources are used up rather than spent for a particular measurable purpose. Educational institutions, like most institutions, add and add and grow and grow without ever stopping to bury and cover their dead. Seldom do they stop to evaluate how well or efficient they do what they proclaim in their bulletins. Thus we find educational pollution as dangerous and troublesome as industrial pollution. The smoke that once signalled industrial progress now also brings tears. There is a great need to re-examine the purpose, processes, and resources in education and to formulate long-range plans to fulfill the chosen purpose.

15. Controls in Education

All educational planning and consideration of purpose, goals, objectives and programs limits and controls the day-by-day, month-by-month performance on the working level of education. This limitation is imposed in order to let the broader overall view and philosophy of education, rather than the immediate problem or isolated individual judgment, control the process of education. The degree of limitation will vary with the make-up of the faculty, staff and students. Excessive limitations bring frustrations resulting from a feeling of oppression ; lack of limitations bring frustrations resulting from drifting. Present society has placed such a high value on total freedom that often the orderly and limiting process of planning and establishing goals and objectives either creates conflicts or finds its written statements ignored in the practice of education.

Dr. Raymond C. Gibson writes that "control of education must be as close to the process as possible. A university, by definition, is a community of self-governing scholars and masters who pursue their disciplines in an atmosphere of maximum freedom. Pursuing an educational discipline means above everything else a disciplined human being. Faculty members must accept responsibility commensurate with their freedom or accept the consequences of increasing outside control."

Dr. Gibson suggests that planning be done through either a combined Board of Trustees that functions for all institutions in a given system or by a super board established for that purpose and superimposed on the existing boards for coordinating purposes only.[9]

9 Raymond C. Gibson, "State-Wide Planning for Higher Education," *The College and University Journal* II (Summer 1963), 42-3.

The purpose and goals of an institution, just like all the other following processes in education, should have the strong support not the Board of Directors, educational leaders, teachers, but also of the students, parents and the constituency. This broad support is one of the keys to planning, for in the final analysis, the educational institution will be what the constituency wants it to be. There may of course be exceptions in this too, as in the case of a very uneducated, dispersed or oppressed constituency. But in a democratic society it is deemed dangerous to encourage an uninvolved constituency that would support its educational institution and not concern itself with the direction in which the institution is moving.

Educational institutions have been established to fill a certain need, to realize a purpose. Educators must work toward the fulfillment of that need, that purpose. In this, long-range educational planning is a valuable aid.